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ARTICLES

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BOOK REVIEWS

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Recent Trends In Textbooks Of American History

Of the making of textbooks in the field of American history there seems to be no end. This is not said in disparagement, but in recognition of the fact that today the teacher of American history enjoys a wide range of choice in the selection of books for his students. American history can now readily be taught from many angles and from many points of view.

It is the purpose in the first part of this article to indicate some of the more significant trends as they appear in about twenty current college texts. The second part deals with important developments in secondary-school texts. There are many other works besides those selected as a basis of judgment which exigencies of space prohibited including this survey.

I

During the past twenty years, there has been a steady improvement in the format and pedagogical apparatus of college texts. Handsome bindings, good print, wide margins, and carefully selected maps and illustrations invite perusal. Most striking is the amount of attention now devoted to bibliographical aids. No teacher or student need confine his reading to the words of his textbook.

Stylistically, however, textbooks leave much to be desired. While exposition and narration are generally lucid and systematic, the presentation of material as a whole often lacks distinction and frequently lapses into downright dullness. Some shining exceptions are to be found, as for example, S. E. Morison and H. S. Commager, *The Growth of the American Republic*,[1] which, apart from certain dreary chapters on American life in the post-Civil-war period, exhibits literary finish of an unnusually high order.

There is increasing emphasis upon social, economic, and intellectual history. While war, diplomacy, politics, and constitutional issues are still staple themes, they must now compete for space and emphasis with cultural aspects of the past.

[1] 2 vols., 4th Edition, Oxford University Press, New York, 1950.

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The following figures illustrate the percentage of space alloted to what may be broadly described as cultural history in seven widely used textbooks of American history:

		%
Barck, Wakefield, & Lefler: *The United States, A Survey of National Development* (The Ronald Press, 1950)		20.00
Billington, Loewenberg, & Brockunier: *The United States, American Democracy in World Perspective* (Rinehart & Co., 1947)		34.26
Chitwood and Owsley: *A Short History of The United States*, vol. I. (D. Van Nostrand Co., 1946)		23.97
Owsley, Chitwood, & Nixon: *A Short History of The United States*, vol. II. (D. Van Nostrand Co., 1948)		21.52
Craven & Johnson: *The United States, Experiment in Democracy* (Ginn & Co., 1947)		21.30
Curti, Shryock, Cochran, & Harrington: *An American History* (Harper & Bros.)	vol. I	45.54
Curti, Shryock, Cochran, & Harrington: *An American History* (Harper & Bros.)	vol. II	57.41
Hockett & Schlesinger: *Political & Social Growth of the American People* (Macmillan Co., 3rd edit., 1948)	vol. I	19.87
Hockett & Schlesinger: *Political & Social Growth of the American People* (Macmillan Co., 3rd edit., 1948)	vol. II	29.91
Morison & Commager: *The Growth of the American Republic*	vol. I	23.64
Morison & Commager: *The Growth of the American Republic*	vol. II	24.76

If social and intellectual history is to be adequately treated, it often requires more space than is available in the ordinary textbook, which is planned to touch upon almost every aspect of the past.

Two recent books, serviceable either as required texts or as supplemental reading, illustrate the fascination of cultural history when made the central theme.

Harvey Wish in his *Society and Thought in Early America*[2] covers the period extending from colonial times to the conclusion of the Civil War. Emphasis is laid upon our continental cultural

[2] Longmans, Green & Co., New York, 1950.

borrowing from Europe and the way in which European customs and ideas amalgamated with other customs and ideas indigenously evolved by settlers and immigrants in America to form our distinctive institutions. The book is admirably organized, charmingly illustrated, and supplied with a comprehensive, critical bibliography. For a general survey of social history between 1492 and 1865, it has few equals.

Arthur M. Schlesinger has treated selected facets of American social history in his *Paths to the Present*.[3] His purpose is to explain how we came to be as we are. Among the topics chosen are: "What is the American?"; "The City in American Civilization"; and "Food in the Making of America." The book concludes with a discriminating bibliographical essay.

Sectional history, especially of the West and South, containing a strong social note, is another noteworthy feature of the present textbook field. R. A. Billington in his *Westward Expansion*[4] traces the history of the frontier according to the pattern set forth by the late Frederick Jackson Turner. His volume is the product of extensive research. Some of the material duplicates what will be found in conventional texts of American history, but most of it is slanted to explain and illustrate in detail the dramatic march of the frontier. Numerous maps clarify the text and an extensive bibliography beckons the student to further reading and research.

A briefer and more popular survey of the same field is R. E. Riegel's *America Moves West*,[5] while the exploration, settlement, and development of the region beyond the Mississippi are thoroughly treated by L. R. Hafen and C. C. Rister in their *Western America*.[6]

A delightful and informative companion to the foregoing volumes is *The Westward Movement*[7] by I. F. Woestmeyer and J. M. Gambrill. This is a book of selections from original sources, which permits the pioneers to tell their own story. Every phase of the settlement and colonization of the West is given freshness and reality by the narratives of men and women

> "Whose stern, impassioned stress,
> A thoroughfare for freedom beat
> Across the wilderness."

[3] Macmillan Co., New York, 1949.
[4] Macmillan Co., New York, 1950.
[5] Henry Holt and Co., Revised Edition, New York, 1947.
[6] Prentice-Hall, Inc., Second Edition, New York, 1950.
[7] D. Appleton-Century Co., New York, 1939.

W. B. Hesseltine in *The South in American History*[8] takes the view that, "the South is American; its problems have been the nation's, its social adjustments have been reflections of national society." Clement Eaton, on the other hand, in *A History of the Old South*,[9] while recognizing an underlying homogeneity in North and South, contends that "there were differences between the two sections so sharp as to constitute a Southern Way of Life and a Northern Way of Life."

Combined with this emphasis on sectionalism, there is also a marked tendency on the part of textbook writers to present our country in a global rather than a sectional context. Thus, J. B. Rae and T. H. D. Mahoney in their *United States in World History*[10] aim to stress the interrelationships between the United States and other countries, or, in other words, the role of the United States in the general growth of modern civilization. This is an ambitious project, but the authors have succeeded measurably in disentangling the main lines of integration and development. They have wisely avoided detailed treatment of such subjects as philosophy, literature, and the arts, feeling that their inclusion would make the book unwieldy and confusing. Hence the emphasis is chiefly political, diplomatic, and economic.

As previously noted, R. A. Billington, B. J. Loewenberg, and S. H. Brockunier entitle their textbook, *The United States: American Democracy in World Perspective.* They affirm that "neither the policies of a country nor the written history of its people can any longer be formulated within a national vacuum . . . . Our object has been a liberal book that places the story of democratic development in the United States continuously in more universal perspective." They believe that the history of each nation must be rewritten, less stress being placed upon national differences and more stress being laid upon similarities in social organization and upon the fundamental kinship of human nature. Man's character, man's problems, man's spirit must constitute the central theme of the historian. Thus the emphasis of the book is distinctly cultural and the treatment necessarily topical rather than chronological. The volume, which is finely illustrated, has a touch of boldness and originality frequently lacking in textbooks and is frankly, in the Beardian phrase, "an act of faith."

[8] Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1947.
[9] Macmillan Co., New York, 1949.
[10] McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1949.

In their *History of the English-Speaking Peoples*,[11] R. B. Mowat and Preston Slosson (the former an Englishman, the latter an American) seek to tell the story of American civilization within the context of the history of the English-speaking parts of the British Commonwealth, i.e., the British Isles, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa. Comparisons are drawn which serve to express "American facts" in terms familiar to British readers and "British facts" in terms familiar to American readers.

At a time when resistance to the red tide of Communist aggression turns in no small degree upon Anglo-American cooperation, the present work is most timely and will serve to banish prejudice and promote understanding within the Anglo-American world.

The theme of Vera Brown Holmes' *History of the Americas*[12] is that colonial Americans north and south of the Rio Grande, despite their many political and social differences were bound together in a common adventure; i.e., "they were engaged in the experiment of applying the precepts and practices of western European civilization to the conditions of Indian America." Her purpose is to place the history of our country in the perspective of the whole Western Hemisphere and to disclose the political and social foundations of contemporary life in the New World.

No discussion of textbooks would be complete without reference to the supplemental aids to instruction. Of these, two kinds merit special emphasis. One is the documentary source book, of which good examples are afforded by H. S. Commager's *Documents of American History*;[13] *The People Shall Judge*,[14] edited by the Staff of Social Sciences I., University of Chicago; and R. J. Bartlett's *Record of American Diplomacy*.[15] These include well selected materials of an official or quasi-official character and largely supercede the older series of documentary source books edited by the late William G. MacDonald.

The other type of supplemental aid, or better expressed "partner," to textbook instruction is the "Readings" (foreshadowed as early as 1897-1901 by A. B. Hart's *American History Told by Contemporaries*),[16] which may include some official documents, but which chiefly comprises excerpts from "contemporary im-

[11] Oxford University Press, New York, 1948.
[12] The Ronald Press, New York, 1950.
[13] Appleton-Century-Crofts, 5th ed., New York, 1949.
[14] University of Chicago Press, 2 vols., Chicago, 1949.
[15] Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1947.
[16] Macmillan Co., 4 vols., New York.

pressions and eye-witness accounts, contemporary statements of critical problems and ideas, and modern evaluations." The publication of "Readings" is due to a feeling that the conventional textbook "presents the student with a body of pre-digested conclusions rather than a body of data, and thus deprives him of a sense of the complexity of the historical process involved in the evaluation of evidence and in the distinguishing of verifiable facts and tendentious assertion."

This type of material is lavishly and yet discriminately supplied by such collections as L. M. Hacker and H. S. Zahler: *The Shaping of the American Tradition;*[17] *Problems of American Civilization,*[18] edited by the American Studies Staff at Amherst College; Thorp, Curti, and Baker: *American Issues;*[19] Warfel, Gabriel and Williams: *The American Mind;*[20] Potter and Manning and Davies: *Select Problems in Historical Interpretation;*[21] Billington, Loewenberg and Brockunier: *The Making of American Democracy, Readings and Documents.*[22]

On the whole, the state of affairs in the field of college textbooks of American history is encouraging. Fresh materials, fresh points of view, wider perspectives, keener appreciation of our cultural heritage, carefully selected bibliographical aids, offer the student a richer course of study than was possible two decades ago.

II

If conditions in the field of college textbooks are gratifying, even more so are conditions in the field of secondary-school textbooks. Six examples are selected for examination: Faulkner, Kepner, and Merrill: *History of the American Way;*[23] McGuire and Portwood: *The Rise of Our Free Nations;*[24] J. Van D. Southworth: *Our United States;*[25] Canfield and Wilder: *The Making of Modern America;*[26] Bining, Martin, and Wolf: *This*

[17] Columbia University Press, New York, 1947.
[18] D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1949-50.
[19] J. B. Lippincott Co., 2 vols., Philadelphia, 1941.
[20] The Ronald Press, New York, 1950.
[21] Henry Holt & Co., 2 vols., New York, 1949-50.
[22] Rinehart & Co., 2 vols., New York, 1950.
[23] Harper & Bros., New York, 1950.
[24] Macmillan Co., New York, 1950.
[25] Iroquois Publishing Co., New York, 1948.
[26] Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1950.

Is Our Nation;[27] Wilder, Ludlum, and Wilder: *This is America's Story.*[28]

These volumes make clear the fact that while high-school textbooks of American history aim to lay the foundation for later college study, their primary purpose is to promote enlightened and informed citizenship in a democracy. They seek to enable the student to consider the essential problems of his time in the light of such knowledge and wisdom as history brings to bear upon them. Thus the treatment of the past is not only factual but functional, not only chronological but topical. By emphasizing major concepts, movements, or "units," which run like scarlet threads through the warp and woof of our history and by relating these to current conditions, the authors vitalize the past and illumine the present. History ceases to be a string of facts and dates and becomes a dynamic process.

For example, Faulkner, Kepner, and Merrill offer eleven units as follows:

Unit I. America, Blessed by Nature, Becomes The Crossroads of the World's Peoples
Unit II. Americans Choose a Democratic Government
Unit III. Americans Develop the Democratic Way of Life
Unit IV. Americans Push Back the Frontier
Unit V. America Follows the Educational Way of Life
Unit VI. The Industrial Way of Life Gains the Upper Hand
Unit VII. The American Worker Struggles for a Square Deal
Unit VIII. Americans Ever Seek a Better Life
Unit IX. America Finds that She Can No Longer Live Alone.

The units are broken down into chapters or sections, each of which is introduced by a foreward focussing attention on the ideas to be developed and each of which is concluded by various exercises and projects designed to clinch the material presented.

In devizing these exercises and projects, not only Faulkner, Kepner, and Merrill, but the other authors mentioned exhibit abundant imagination and ingenuity. McGuire and Portwood, for example, show the student how he can incorporate the material of each unit into pictures, maps, cartoons, outlines, diagrams, charts, scrapbooks, plays, debates, quizzes and discussions. The student is encouraged to scan the press for illustrative material and is taught to construct and interpret graphs and statistical tables connected with his reading. Such instructional aids are buttressed by brief but carefully chosen reading lists.

[27] Newson & Co., New York, 1950.
[28] Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1950.

Southworth recommends in addition to exercises and projects illustrating each unit, an inclusive series of test questions, known in advance by the student, which he has found to be highly successful in the course of his teaching career. He claims that they inspire the student to work harder and plug up the weak spots in his preparation. They include "Names and Terms to Know," "Questions Reviewing the Unit," and "Master Survey Questions."

All the foregoing works are generously supplied with maps, charts, diagrams, and illustrations, often in color, skillfully designed to quicken the reader's interest and illumine the text. All of them contain the text of the United States Constitution and a few other historic documents such as Washington's Farewell Address, the Monroe Doctrine, Lincoln's Gettysburg Address, The Atlantic Charter, Charter of the United Nations, and so on. *The American Way* by Faulkner, Kepner and Merrill, and *The Making of Modern America* by Canfield and Wilder are supplemented by workbooks.

While these textbooks deal of necessity with many controversial issues, the writers are refreshingly free from partisanship. This may be the result of expediency—of a desire to avoid offending the sensibilities of parents and school boards. Or it may be due to a lively sense of the historian's obligation to be objective. Certainly, it would be difficult, if not impossible, to infer the party allegiance of any one of the authors. They seem to have no axe to grind from a sectional, a political, a religious, or an ideological point of view. If there be any partiality, it lies in the direction of favoring progressive rather than conservative policies in domestic affairs, and international cooperation rather than isolationism in the field of foreign affairs.

This is not to say that the writers refrain from passing judgment on men and measures where historical facts are fairly well established. For example, they are critical of Polk's policy respecting Mexico, of McKinley's policy respecting Cuba, of Theodore Roosevelt's policy respecting Panama.

There appears to be no one theory of historical interpretation unless it be the theory of multiple causation. Human nature is disclosed as having many facets and manifold motivation. While the "great man" receives his due, he is treated neither as demigod or as legend. Beard's views on the framing of the Constitution and Turner's on the frontier are in evidence but not disproportionately. Considerable stress is laid upon the effect of technological advance upon cultural development. The amount of

space devoted to geographic influences varies in each book. Only Faulkner, Kepner and Merrill devote an entire chapter to the subject.

The future of the United States is viewed optimistically, though not romantically, by the authors of the books reviewed. While they do not seem to regard the inculcation of patriotism as a function of history, their presentation of the past and their basic point of view will undoubtedly imbue student readers with an informed and discriminating love of country. America will be enshrined in their hearts, not as a fetich, but as a faith.

EDWARD ELY CURTIS
Wellesley College

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The Essay Examination In College

The primary aim of a liberal education is, or ought to be, the encouragement of logical habits of thinking based upon knowledge of facts and furthered by imaginative perception. Only through the practice of such discriminate thinking will young men and women be able to work out for themselves and for others solutions to problems that lie around and ahead of them. Because it assumes knowledge of fundamental facts and goes on to require integration of those facts, the essay examination provides valuable training in both thinking and writing.

College students, particularly freshmen, encounter great difficulty with such examinations, however. Our conferences in the Dartmouth Writing Clinic with several hundred of these bewildered freshmen have taught us something about this problem.

The student who has come from a secondary school which almost exclusively uses objective examinations notices a distinct difference between what he has been doing on examinations and what he is now expected to do. It is essentially the difference between the unquestioning memorization of selected facts on the one hand, and the *interpretation* of those facts on the other. Time and time again students come into the Clinic with a failing examination clutched in one hand and with a highly indignant expression on their faces. "I knew the material . . . I studied twenty hours for this exam . . . I filled two blue books . . . I wrote steadily for two hours. How could I possibly flunk?"

In answering this question let us look at two common types of answers which, with minor variations, illustrate the extremes of student writing. These may be labeled, for convenience, the memorized facts answer and the generalized answer.

I

The memorized facts exam—the undigested breakfast exam. The student has swallowed his facts whole. He has attended every class, he has taken notes religiously, he has committed solid pages of notes to memory, but he has forgotten one important thing: he has neglected to think about any of the facts. To him the course has simply been a memory stunt, a five-day-a-week Information Please on a large scale. One of the most difficult tasks is to explain to such a student why he failed his freshman English examination.

Here is an example. A freshman was asked to write for one hour on a certain, specific aspect of *Paradise Lost*. A critical interpretation of *Paradise Lost* was quoted, and he was to agree or disagree with the statement, buttressing his answer with ample evidence from his reading. He knew "the plot" by heart, and he had put in the requisite number of hours on his assignments. What happened?

He glanced hurriedly at the question. Quickly his eyes riveted themselves on the words "*Paradise Lost*." He experienced a fleeting moment of uncertainty as he noticed the phrase "agree or disagree with the above critical evaluation." But he could already hear the frantic scribbling of pens and pencils as other students leaped into the first page of their answers. Like a well-constructed automaton, the memory section of his brain sprang into action. What was *Paradise Lost* about? What was "the plot" (those magic words)?

> Book I takes place in Hell where Satan and his followers have fallen after the War in Heaven. The fallen angels are despondent until Satan addresses them and urges them to call a council to make plans to regain their former position. Pandemonium is built.
> Book II describes the famous debate in Hell. Satan, Belial, Moloch, Mammon, and Beelzebub debate different plans of action, and finally Satan volunteers to explore the realms outside Hell.

There are twelve books in *Paradise Lost*, seven of which have been assigned. Therefore this answer consists of seven brief summaries, carefully memorized, with perhaps a final paragraph in which all seven summaries are in turn summarized (to tie up any "loose ends" at the end of the essay).

Here is an answer that would satisfy almost any beginning college student. (1) It shows that the student has read the assignment; (2) it shows that he has memorized it, correctly placing each fact in the book where it was originally placed by Milton himself; (3) it shows that he was industrious, because the answer filled nearly one whole bluebook.

The tragedy of his essay was that *it did not answer the question*. It did not "agree or disagree"; it did not select facts from the reading to support the opinion of the student. Rather, it dumped a mass of facts into the lap of the teacher. It failed to give any evidence whatsoever of the student's own thinking. It served no other purpose than to assure the instructor that the student had done the reading.

II.

The generalized exam—or, as the students themselves so fondly refer to it, "the straight bull answer." The notion widely prevails, and indeed it is somewhat encouraged by many English teachers, that the examination is above all an opportunity to display "fine writing." The only difficulty with this theory is that too often the "fine writing" obscures, and in some cases even replaces, serious thinking about the question itself.

A student came to us a year ago, three weeks before mid-year examinations, with two English 1 bluebooks in his hand. The first was an E3 (hopeless failure), the second an E2 (a little less than hopeless). He told us that his high school English teacher insisted that he cultivate a pleasant style. With that in mind, he had begun his second college English exam (on Chaucer) with a leisurely account of Chaucer's life and background, had mentioned some of his own personal preferences in the *Canterbury Tales*, and then out of deference to the essay question, which after all *had* specified Chaucer's attitude toward the medieval church, he had included a short paragraph of general statements he had heard in class. All was tied up neatly by a rather detailed summary of what had just been said in the preceding paragraphs.

There were pages and pages of "fine writing" in this answer. The disturbing fact was that almost nothing in it specifically answered the question that had been specifically put to the student in the first place. There was a short paragraph near the end (partially relevant), preceded by a long, flowery introduction (completely irrelevant), followed by an equally long summary (a sheer waste of time).

These answers are familiar to every college teacher. It is well to remember, however, that they represent attempts to improvise in an unfamiliar situation. In such cases, not all the blame can be placed on the student.

III.

Here, briefly, is what we try to do in the Writing Clinic to overcome some of the most prevalent weaknesses students exhibit in the writing of essay questions.

A student brings in his ill-fated exam, leaves it at the Clinic, and makes an appointment for an individual conference in which he can discuss it at length with us. (It might be well to emphasize at this point that we concern ourselves only with students who are doing D and E work. Furthermore, the Writing

Clinic is concerned only with men who have done the studying but who have failed the exam. We spend no time with men who have obviously not done the work in the course and who have failed for lack of study).

In most instances of failure the student (1) has not read the question carefully to see what is wanted, and, even more important, to see what is *not* wanted; (2) he has not thought his answer through first but has tried only to get more words down on paper, and to fill more pages and more bluebooks than anyone else in the room; (3) he has made no attempt to organize his answer.

Here is a summary of the advice we give these students.

1. Read the question carefully. Study it more than once. Be sure you understand all the terms employed in it.
2. Mark the parts to be answered (number them, underline key words, circle important points or limitations.)
3. Think through your answer first. Jot down a "grocery list" outline as you think. This outline should not be elaborate with main headings and subheadings. Such an outline is worse than useless because it takes longer to write than the essay that is to be based upon it.

   Use abbreviations, symbols, shorthand, any device to save time. It is like doodling, only with a definite purpose! A good analogy would be the sort of brief notes any speaker or debater makes of an opponent's arguments. Watch a U.N. debate or any public discussion.
4. Only after you have done these three things should you start writing!

At this point most students look at us incredulously. And yet such a procedure should involve no more than four or five minutes on a half hour question. With experience it involves even less time. For all but those very few gifted men who can think and write at the same time and do both effectively, this preliminary 4-5 minutes devoted to thinking, planning, and jotting down brief notes will prove to be the most valuable and important part of the examination.

5. Answer the question directly, in the first sentence if possible. (If you have thought your answer through first, this will be easy.)

   Then spend the rest of your allotted time in bringing in as much evidence and specific facts from your reading as possible to make your position convincing.

   Do not write a long introduction. Do not write a summary. *There simply is not time!* An examination is a cold-blooded business. Answer only what is called for.

Selection of facts rather than mere accumulation and listing of facts, is the essential point to remember in writing an answer to an essay question.

Like everyone else in these days of advertising slogans and capsule information, students love formulas for success. We give our students two such formulas that sum up very succinctly this important matter of conveying information on an exam.

6. G w/o F = 0.
   Generalizations without facts equal zero.
7. F w/o S = 0.
   Facts without significance equal zero.

IV.

Help of a far more valuable kind than ours, however, is potentially available in nearly every secondary school in the country.

In many schools, training in writing essay questions is an integral part of pre-college work. The student is made to realize that grasp of basic facts is only the first, and not the final, step in the process of education. He is encouraged to establish relationships among the apparently isolated subjects he is studying; and he is encouraged to think, write, and speak constructively and imaginatively about these subjects.

In secondary schools, some instruction in logic, even of the simplest kind, is extremely helpful. It has been our experience that a great majority of the students who write fuzzily on examinations also think and speak fuzzily. They have never been taught to evaluate, to discriminate, to organize their thoughts into reasonable patterns. A mere understanding of some of the logical fallacies would eliminate a great many of the irrelevant answers encountered on examinations.

Sound vocabulary training makes it easier for students to express themselves adequately and yet extemporaneously. Too many students able to think fairly well simply do not have a large enough vocabularly to allow adequate expression in the short time allotted on examinations. Many students have admitted writing "around" a word or phrase, and consequently damaging their answers, because they "could not think of the right word." Also, there are many cases of students failing to understand the meaning of terms used in the questions they are to answer. A student's vagueness about the meaning of such common words as "ironic" or "subjective" may cause him to fail the whole exam.

Speech courses in secondary schools can very well be used as a training ground for the kind of rapid assimilation and concise

expression required on essay examinations. Speech and writing are both forms of human expression. Each requires careful planning and selection of facts and words. A speech defect (stuttering or stammering) is not much different from a writing defect (vagueness and ambiguity).

Notes jotted down for an impromptu speech serve just as well for an impromptu written examination. The two are readily interchangeable. No single device has been more valuable in remedial work than the simple one of having students read their exams aloud to us. Much can profitably be done to impress upon the student the carry-over value of speech training into the planning and writing of exams.

Finally, of course, there is the regular writing of essay answers in secondary school work. Ever-increasing pressures on secondary schools in terms of money, teaching load, and mounting student enrollments make it extremely difficult to advance the cause of the essay type examination. It is much easier to give machine-scored examinations that can be run through very quickly and painlessly. Yet we would hate to admit that the teacher's convenience must be the prime consideration in today's education.

Essay questions can be given in any course, as an experiment here at Dartmouth proved. One of the mathematics courses gave an examination recently on which there appeared an essay question, counting fifteen per cent of the exam grade. The reading and grading of those essay questions gave the teacher much valuable insight into the articulateness of his students as well as into the mere retentiveness of their memories.

No one would deny that the objective type exam (multiple choice, true-false, identification, electric pencil) is extremely effective as a means of mass evaluation. But it should *supplement* and not replace the essay exam. Matters of economy, efficiency, simplicity, and "objectivity" are of only secondary importance in the debate concerning the merits of the two examinations. The choice is not simply an *either or* proposition.

Only by training students to think and to express themselves in complete sentences, paragraphs, and carefully organized essays, can we hope to have fully articulate high school and college graduates. No country should be satisfied with a population limited in ability to the filling in of forms and questionnaires, and the uncritical memorization of facts.

DONALD L. CROSS
HAROLD G. RIDLON
Dartmouth College

The Old South Association Of Boston

The corner of Washington and Milk Streets, in the heart of Boston's shopping district, is not where one expects to find a New England country meeting house. Nor would the Old South Meeting House still stand there had not certain New Englanders shown determination to keep it there. In 1877 plans had been far advanced to pull the building down when Mrs. Mary Hemenway and the Old South Association which she helped to form saved the historic structure. This they did for two reasons. It seemed wrong to destroy a great landmark of liberty—as much a shame as it would have been to break up "Old Ironsides" for her timber. Furthermore, it seemed there was still work for that landmark to do. Therefore, with fairs and pennies and speeches and lectures money was raised to save the Meeting House. During the process began the "Old South Work." Since then the Association has tried to carry on a two-fold task, of preserving a famous building and of carrying on the spirit which that building embodies.

A visit to the Old South is worth making for the message the structure itself has to give. Many a spot in it might be considered a shrine. The back door which now stays closed once opened to war whoops, on December 16, 1773. Boston's town meetings were held in the Old South, and a Town Meeting had just heard that the Royal Governor of Massachusetts had rejected its last appeal and was determined to enforce payment of a questionable tax on a cargo of tea. At the announcement "Indians" dashed out that door and made sure the tea never landed. The results of the "tea party" all the world knows.

This door is not the only spot which might seem a shrine. Back of the pulpit is a rather inconvenient large window. It used to be blocked, but the Association opened it on taking possession of the building. The story is that on March 5, 1775, Dr. Joseph Warren had climbed in through such a window to deliver the annual Boston Massacre Oration. That year British soldiers had tried to prevent this unpleasant form of truth-telling, but Dr. Warren was not to be denied the exercise of free speech. It delighted the founders of the Association to verify this story by discovering the glass of the window inside the

brick which was taken down. Here is a memorial to Warren's short and ardent career. He did not live long after this oration, just long enough to cause the lanterns to be hung in the Old North Church, to pen the Lexington message that roused the nation to arms, and to die in the lines at Bunker Hill. Perhaps the witness of this glass will help keep alive his love of liberty.

One potential shrine, somewhere in front of the present pulpit, is difficult to identify. For this memorable event took place long ago, in the days of the "Cedar Meeting House," before the present brick building was put up in 1729. There, in 1696, Judge Samuel Sewall asked pardon of God and man for having condemned the Salem Witches.

Still other events in the Old South's history deserve commemoration. Such was the blaze of indignation in Washington's voice when, on March 17, 1776, he looked through the Meeting House door and saw the shambles made by turning a church into a riding school for British cavalry. A happier memory is of one of America's first public libraries, housed in the steeple. Thereby hangs the tale of how Governor Bradford's *History of Plymouth* was carried off in some manner to end up in the custody of the Archbishop of Canterbury at Lambeth Palace.

A visit to the Old South is one to a place where history has been made. The Association has tried, further, to make such visits more profitable by keeping the spirit of the building alive. Copies of the original square pews have been installed, a relief map of Boston shows the town of 1773, and in the show cases are such memorials as a copy of Dr. Warren's oration, and the Hemenway collection of Washington relics.

But the Association has not considered itself just a custodian of what has gone by. The heritage of the Old South should be a living one. So to the present generation should be passed the spirit of the judge who condemned himself, of the men who paid for the tea they felt it their duty to destroy. To this end the Association works in two ways. One is by support of free speech. The privilege of giving educational lectures at the Old South is open to all who have a cause in which they believe and who cannot find any other platform. The Meeting House is not a hall for public rental, nor is it for electioneering. It is, rather, available for educational talks by those to whom other platforms appear barred. It is pleasant to report that in the past decade there apparently was but one case of this type.

Generally the "Old South Work" has not been this dramatic. In the early days of the Association many lectures were given, dealing with the American heritage. Their popularity necessitated repetition in Brooklyn. Frequently the lectures were accompanied with reprints of documents of our past. Of those pamphlets over two hundred are still in print, now identified by a subject catalogue. In recent years new ones have been published. Rear Admiral S. E. Morison's *History as a Literary Art*, and the *New York Declaration of* 1764, *and the Declarations and Petitions of the Stamp Act Congress* are three titles. Other leaflets are in process, notably a brief outline of the *Colonial Institutions of* Massachusetts, which has the purpose of aiding the study of community history now required by a recent Massachusetts law; and a facsimile reproduction of the Mayflower Compact, with critical comment.

The Old South Association hopes its services will be used, and it will welcome suggestions for pamphlets, visits, or other ways in which it can be of use to the community and to the nation.

RICHARD W. HALE, JR.
Secretary,
The Old South Association

NOTE: The leaflets sell for 10¢, with a discount for quantity, which covers the cost of production and allows for additions. Visitors are always welcome. Adults pay an admission fee of 30¢ but school children under twelve and boy and girl scouts with accompanying adults are admitted free.

The Bard College Community Government Survey

At a general meeting of the Bard College Community opening the Fall Term of 1950, President James H. Case, Jr., suggested that the preparation of a new constitution for the Bard Community might be greatly facilitated if, during the College's Winter Field Period, a group were to study the structure and function of community government at a number of colleges whose general orientation was similar to that of Bard. Under this plan, five students were elected by college-wide vote, and the faculty appointed Miss Ruth Gillard, Assistant Professor of Sociology, to direct the group that was to carry out the project.

The first college visited was Sarah Lawrence, a four-year woman's college of some 350 students located in Bronxville, New York. While Sarah Lawrence terms its governmental structure "student government," it is actually a mixture of the best aspects of student government, community government with its greater total involvement, and unstructured personal relationships. A Student Council administers many of the internal affairs, referring to a Joint Committee made up of faculty, administration, and student members all matters which the Council does not feel lie within its jurisdiction.

Although a few other "joint" committees do exist, most are exclusively made up either of students or faculty. Nevertheless, personal relationships, especially those between administration and student body, function at such a high level that extremely effective work is carried on within this seemingly segmented government. Despite the mild iconoclasm which tempers campus character, a tradition of mutual confidence and action in good faith guides the governmental life. The administration, which places more stress on the educational rather than on the expedient values of student government, makes its primary objective a comprehensive knowledge and understanding of student morale and outlook. Because of the resulting cohesion of seemingly distant groups, it is with ease and pleasure that the students bring matters of student government importance to the Dean, the President, or the Joint Committee as a matter of course. The students, thriving on the benefits of such a policy, do not feel themselves obliged to maintain an elaborate and

restricting constitutional system, and choose rather to work on a realistic *ad hoc* basis in many matters.

In sum, the Sarah Lawrence Community is an excellent example of highly effective relationships working beyond the formal structure, where groups, seemingly recognized as naturally separate elements, cooperate fully on the informal level.

The next college visited was Mount Holyoke, another four-year woman's institution of some 1200 students, in South Hadley, Massachusetts. Mount Holyoke set aside community government some five years ago, recognizing it as unreal considering the natural dichotomy between student and faculty-administration interests. This separation became more apparent recently, when college expansion forced many faculty members to take up off-campus residence, thus further dislocating any real community interests. At present a comprehensively structured student government takes care of much of the internal social organization in the college. Despite the explicit right of the administration to assume any duties it feels are not being properly discharged by the student government, such incidents are in fact unlooked-for. This may be the result of the students' general awareness of the responsibilities of the college to the outside world.

In view of its aim, Mount Holyoke student government is both consistent and successful. Like Sarah Lawrence, it predicates separate areas of interest for separate campus groups, and like Sarah Lawrence, it finds a compelling unity of interest despite the preponderance of divided committees and assemblies. The unifying factor in this case, however, is essentially more an internal than an external one. While Sarah Lawrence is drawn together by a sense of community from within, Mount Holyoke stresses its membership in a larger continuum.

Third on the itinerary was Antioch College, a coeducational institution in Yellow Springs, Ohio. Although there are over 1100 students, at any one time half are out on Antioch's five-year work-study program. This requires a highly specialized community government system, and continual re-evaluation of its functionings.

Antioch's community government functions around the Community Council, made up predominantly of students but including some faculty, and the Administrative Council, a group comprising chiefly faculty-administration personnel with a few students. The Administrative Council handles those matters implied in its title, though its jurisdiction is virtually limitless, while

the Community Council deals with the machinery of internal government. The members of both are elected by community-wide vote. The other committees of Antioch's far-flung system are composed chiefly of students, though faculty and administration are impressively well represented and integrated.

As has been mentioned, the community government is one of considerable complexity. Among the various committees, boards, councils and coordinators moves the Community Manager, a student whose full-time paid job is the welfare of the Antioch community through its government. In general, his activities consist of continual liason between all imaginable groups within the community.

Despite the intricate formal structure central to the Antioch community government, it may well be that the effective integration of faculty and student interests arises more from informal faculty-student cohesion than from the comprehensive forms provided. In any case, through the honor system, student-faculty committees, and numberless other agencies, Antioch predicates and makes effective the ideal of unified community interest and action among all groups.

Marlboro College, Marlboro, Vermont, has been in operation only since the end of the war. Its almost all-male student body numbers about 100. For its central unit in community government it has taken the traditional Vermont "town meeting" form, including an executive committee of select men and a moderator elected for each weekly meeting. Because of the size of the Marlboro community, this government has a simplicity directly opposite to the Antioch formality. Almost without exception the various elements of the structure operate directly from the Town Meeting.

Again perhaps because of its size and youth (student and faculty labor is still building dormitories and classrooms), Marlboro is attempting to establish a real coöperative basis. For example, during the visit of the Bard Survey, a member of the faculty was elected for the second time moderator of the Town Meeting by the members present—almost all students. This sense of real community was everywhere to be seen.

The success of a basic form of community government such as that employed at Marlboro depends greatly on the morale that goes into it, lacking as it does formal supports in case of serious variations in community personality.

A coeducational college of Marlboro's size, Goddard College, in Plainfield, Vermont, has assumed a more structured form of

community government. While its Community Meeting is still the central agency in the governmental form, such bodies as a council, an executive board, a judicial committee and a committee in charge of the community work program supplement the Community Meeting. Goddard's size is an advantage, for it can reap the benefits of typical small-community cohesion even within its business-like governmental structure.

As implied in the name "community government," Goddard profits in committee work and community participation by the interests shared by student and faculty-administration groups. Except for the Educational Policies Committee and a few other groups whose very nature demands all-student membership, no campus body is without balanced representation. The political maturity of the Goddard community was striking. This may be the result of mutual confidence between students and the faculty-administration group.

It was felt that a rare practical idealism, good ideas plus common sense, has made Goddard an admirably adapted community.

Since Bennington College, Bennington, Vermont, includes in its program a Winter Field Period simultaneous with that at Bard, the Survey group has as yet not visited that campus. With the study of community government at the 300-student woman's college, the Bard College Community Government Survey will complete the research phase of its activities. It will then proceed with the correlation of the material gathered and the preparation of a new constitution for the coeducational Bard community. Following this, a book developing the ideas and examples of community government studied during the Field Period investigation will be written. Other members of the 250-student community will combine to write a second, less theoretical volume, dealing with the social and academic experiences of a small educational community. The finished texts will serve as a guidebook both to the theory and function of community government in small colleges, and to the correlation of the community government idea with progressive teaching techniques.

WHITNEY BOLTON
Bard, 1951

Book Reviews

The Student Looks at His Teacher, by John W. Riley, Jr., Bryce F. Ryan, and Marcia Lifshitz, Rutgers University Press, New Brunswick, New Jersey, 1950. xi, 166.

Every teacher who has taught with more than half his heart knows how intimate and personal his work is. His classroom is his castle, and (he may feel with some justification) what goes on in it is between his students, himself, and *le bon dieu*. His teaching is an expression of faith, of his total personality. No wonder he must believe in himself, cherish illusions about himself, rationalize away his bad days and his many failures. He gets little money and less thanks. Among his compensations is to work with what he loves and in the way he wants. One can sympathize with his desire to be left alone. The authors of the present volume discuss what they call the traditional "immunity" long enjoyed by American college and university professors as if it were an ignominious professional conspiracy, mediocrity defending itself and hanging onto its job. The truth is that the teacher, like any artist, must believe in himself, or as a teacher, perish. There are never enough good teachers and very few great ones, and we should hesitate to hound out of the profession any teachers with a grain of promise or to sour the last days of faithful veterans who have rendered substantial service. So if, through the years, teachers have sought for and been granted a sort of immunity—by no means as impregnable as our authors suggest—it may be founded on a basic impulse, not only of the teacher but of society itself, toward survival.

For many reasons, then, there must have been misgivings on the Brooklyn campus when the project whose results are reported in this study was formally voted. In response to the request of a "Student Committee on the Improvement of Teaching," the Brooklyn faculty invited the Department of Sociology at Rutgers University to poll the student opinion of teaching at Brooklyn and analyze the results. In so doing, they threw themselves to *two* sets of lions: they exposed themselves to the possibly cruel and irresponsible censure of youth and invited rival colleagues to witness their possible shame, even publish it to the world. The walls of privacy were crumbling fast. Brooklyn College stood to be publicly discredited, many fine reputations maliciously and undeservedly damaged, the structure of academic authority endangered. If the terrific leverage thus given students were to be abused, education on that campus

—and by contagion many another—might well be reduced to a travesty.

As a matter of fact, nothing so dire happened. Some unpleasant truths were brought home to a number of individuals, but both the Brooklyn faculty and the Rutgers experts now agree that the students on the whole accepted their responsibility seriously and conscientiously. There were no "smear campaigns." Administration, faculty, and students worked harmoniously to make the affair a community endeavor in the interests of the very life-purpose of the institution. In general, the faculty was given a sturdy vote of confidence. Many of them were grateful for this chance to see themselves as their students saw them, and proceeded to salutary reassessment of the techniques and contents of their courses. Only a few recorded their resentment at this invasion of privacy and their disapproval of its theory and method. On the whole, if we are to credit the testimony presented in this book, Brooklyn College emerged from the ordeal with little lost and much gained.

Of course, it may be too early to tell. We have not yet felt, perhaps, the full effect of the gradual, bloodless revolution that has been taking place on American campuses during the last decade or so. Starting with angry gibes in undergraduate publications, in recent years the tendency has been more formalized in well-edited student "Course Critiques" and elaborate "rating" of professors. Administrations, in most instances, have kept at a safe distance, apparently to see what would happen, while department heads have used the information more and more openly in determining the destinies of their instructors. Student opinion has been a factor on American campuses at least since the turn of the century, but not until recently has it been systematically explored and used officially. There is no blinking the dangerous extremes to which the tendency might go. It would be a tragedy, as some prophets foretell, if we turned the whole affair over to the students and let them make our minds up for us.

I do not think this will happen; and in the meantime I think it much less dangerous to seek out student opinion in an intelligent and controlled way than to ignore it altogether. Teachers who are foolish enough to bid for popularity by light assignments, superficial lectures, and plenty of "eye and ear entertainment," will be found out in the end. In an academic community there are too many other standards by which teachers are judged—let alone the natural, long-term good sense of

undergraduates, in which I firmly believe—to allow charlatanism to flourish unchecked.

But we must proceed with the utmost caution. Even this most carefully prepared questionaire of the Rutgers experts has, as they admit, several weaknesses. There is grave danger in reducing to quantitative terms a problem that is essentially qualitative. We are apt, in this era of Gallup, to place too much faith in the counting of noses, and recent history is full of instances of how wrong "overwhelming majorities" can be. Numerical percentages and ratings are always to be suspected. A single vague or misunderstood question—in the present instance the question on "Encouragement to Thinking" was found later to have been all but ruinously misunderstood—can throw off the results badly. To what extent are students capable of judging "Knowledge of Subject Matter" and how many of them have the same notion of what "Speaking Ability" constitutes?

A simple safeguard against such misinterpretations is the perfectly feasible device of asking the student to write a paragraph of general summary, after he has answered the questions, on each of his teachers. In a poll of some 1100 students with which I had recently to do, these brief statements provided much the most valuable evidence we gathered. Here many subtleties of personal attitude, shades of meaning, and sometimes crucial points not evoked by the necessarily stereotyped questions were brought into the clear. The handling of these comments was not a grave clerical problem, and the students were obviously grateful for the chance to go beyond the confines of the questionaire. It added a creative element to an otherwise mechanical check-off.

In spite of too much sociological jargon ("subject matter competence," "over-all analysis," "personality structure," "student-faculty reaction sheet," "manifestations of professional behavior," etc., etc.,) and a good deal of unnecessary repetition—how often are we told that learning is not a "one-way street"?—the authors of this volume have told their story interestingly and well. It is a direct frontal assault on a perennially delicate and vital problem. It points toward an end which is important in our democracy, the discovery and the nurture, through an education which must become more and more dynamic, of what Jefferson called our only true aristocracy—the aristocracy of talent.

RICHARD B. SEWALL
Yale University

Why the Private School?, by Allan V. Heely. Harper & Bros., N. Y., 1951, 208 pp. $3.00.

Far more than implied by its title, this book is a discussion of the current American educational scene on the secondary level. It will be read with interest and profit, not only by all persons actively engaged in the field, but also by many who are not. The author, Allan V. Heely, Headmaster of Lawrenceville School, needs no introduction in the circle of the country's private schools. He has earned for himself a distinguished place in the ranks of American educators. And all readers not of radical or reactionary persuasion, who have regard for successful experience and earnest thinking, will find it difficult not to respect —and for the most part accept—his well reasoned and clearly stated conclusions.

Why the Private School?, as a title, applies primarily to the first part of the book. Mr. Heely begins with the premise that the two objectives of American education are: "the provision for all the people of a superior preparation for their lives as citizens and the more specialized training of the exceptional minority." At best our public school system realizes only the first of these objectives, and that for the most part imperfectly, handicapped as the system often is by physical and financial difficulties, by politics and pressure groups, and—the reader may find the author's stricture too severe—by a popular frame of mind which confuses equality with democracy and is too frequently content with mediocrity. The justification of the private school lies in the possibility of its realizing not only the first objective but, more particularly, the second—the specialized training of the exceptional student. Inherent in the independent system is selectivity in the choice of students, teachers, and books; a better opportunity to teach through small and specialized classes; a more effective control of the over-all experience of its pupils; and relative freedom from outside influences prejudicial to an institution's philosophy and standards. That the private schools have often failed to live up to the demands made of them Mr. Heely admits freely, and his discussion of their shortcomings is frank and illuminating. But, on the whole, and certainly as exemplified by the best, the author finds the private schools have justified their existence as a valuable and necessary part of our present school system.

The latter half of the book is devoted largely to a discussion of the problems with which most schools are faced: the budget, co-education, the extra-curricular program, the place of ath-

letics, discipline and government, the student's self-identification with his school life, and the demands variously made of their educational programs by different types of schools. Based on his own experience, Mr. Heely's answers to these problems are essentially conservative. He has scant respect for modern catchwords, and is firm in his support of a curriculum directed, not at money making, but at the cultivation of understanding and values. School government is first of all a responsibility of the headmaster and faculty; student self-government a system based on a balance of responsibility and authority suited to individual capacity. The chapter on the role of psychiatry may prove more provocative than convincing. In answering the problems raised by religion, Mr. Heely avoids the extremes of dogmatism and hostility, and underlines the need for religious instruction and for faith as the cornerstone of morals.

GEORGE P. MILMINE
The Hotchkiss School

The Growth of the American Economy. Harold F. Williamson, (Ed.) Pp. xiv, 946. New York: Prentice Hall, Inc. 1951.

"Interest in economic history," says Harold Williamson, "naturally centers upon the factors that make for change." As we look at the changes that have taken place in this new edition of this excellent text, first published in 1944, we notice that the growth factor has been at work. We see about a 20 percent increase in the number of pages. Two new chapters on marketing have been added to the topics covered in the first edition and the major chronological divisions have been revised. The first period now ends with 1789, the second with 1865, the third with 1918 and the last with 1950. But if we really want to see how change operates in our economy, let us compare the twenty-six authors of the first edition with the twenty-seven present authors. Three of the previous authors do not appear in this edition and four new authors have been added. Of the six professors of history in the first edition, two have gone to different institutions. Two associate professors of history have changed institutions and are now full professors. One government economist is now professor of history. All of the seven associate professors of history or economics in the first edition are now professors or with the government, but only three are with the same institutions. Of the six assistant professors of economics in the first edition, three are now professors, surpris-

ingly enough, with the same college or university, two have left their academic connection and one has gone to another university.

This new edition, however, has a much greater unity than the older book. Within each period, we have an excellent introduction by Mr. Williamson. Essentially the areas considered are transportation, agriculture, industry and commerical policies, money and capital, labor, business organization, management, trust policy and public finance. There is a vast wealth of material not only in the body of the various chapters and in the footnotes but each chapter is followed by a list of selected references on general and special topics.

It would be a strange review, indeed, that did not find something to criticize about a new book. Here the question arises concerning the level of background required for reading the book with greatest profit. The editor finds it "impractical to include anything more than those topics that give the beginning student a knowledge and understanding of the major trends in the evolution of our economic institutions." By and large, the chapters are readable, stimulating and provocative but the beginning student, without, for example, a previous knowledge of the way our banking system operates, might find some of the material on monetary and fiscal policy pretty rough going. An intermediate or advanced student in economics would read these chapters with much greater understanding. There is no doubt, however, that the beginning student would profit greatly from the material presented in this text. Professor Somers' valuable summaries at the end of each section, on the performance of the economy, point to the significance of the material previously covered in the various chapters of the section and add a great deal to the picture of the dynamic character of American economic development.

MARGARET H. ELY
Connecticut College

This Is Teaching, by Marie I. Rasey, Harper and Brothers, 1950.

The most difficult, the least common, and the most thorough way to teach, as Professor Highet said in his recent book, is to use the Socratic method. Because it demands constant alertness, invariable good humour, complete earnestness, and utter self-surrender to the course of truth on the part of both teacher and pupil, it is no wonder the method is seldom really used.

Dr. Rasey in *This is Teaching* not only uses it, but through it translates the psychiatric concepts of the gestalt theory in educational practice, demonstrating how progressive education techniques can be used at college or graduate school levels. The book is stimulating and provocative, one which should be of interest to every teacher, whether he reads with sympathy or finds himself definitely in the seats of the scornful.

This work is an account of a seminar in applied psychology of seventeen graduate students, all teachers or social workers, and a super-Socratic "Dr. Randall." In her introduction Dr. Rasey makes clear that although every item in the presentations of the sessions occured at some time in her classes she has naturally stage-managed or, as she would say, "expedited" her material. Because she has the creative artists power, the Monday evening seminar sessions in the informal atmosphere of the book-lined professor's study come alive for us, and the heterogeneous group expecting lectures, note-taking, term papers, and examinations find all that discarded; they must instead work out together a psychology and apply it. As these students thaw, which they do with miraculous speed, they express their profound dissatisfaction with education and the world they live in, and are given a method of stating problems and objectives, of listing knowns and unknowns which hinder reaching the objectives and tackling the desired unknowns. The truth emerges that the job of schools is not to manipulate human beings directly, but to manipulate circumstances, the stuff of experience, so that the learner is "readied to be at home with change" and becomes adequate for the complicated business of living in one world.

This large order Dr. Rasey believes is possible if teachers use what is already known about individual differences and growth potentialities in the "holistic" approach to personality: that is, making concrete in educational practice the abstractions of gestalt psychology. One must accept education not as a sum of parts, but as a process of growth, a series of changes which take place in an individual who is both out-moving and in-taking, "a biosphere," an organism and an environment, a skin-limited self and a behavior self. The test of any educative facility is the extent to which the learner recognizes and takes in what develops him as well as the number and quality of the relations he can establish and maintain. The teacher's job is, first to find what each "biosphere" brings to the learning experience; then "to provoke effort on the appropriate energy level," knowing that desire and will are more potent than compulsion and that

desire depends on values held. The discussion of values as part of total growth process leads to the idea that the child need not be reared egocentric, as he usually is, if the educative process focuses on the ordering and interpretation of experiences in social learning. Dr. Rasey believes that beyond all motivation of self-acquiring lies a stronger basic yearning for cooperation or "togetherness." Students of Köhler may take exception to the idea that society is a gestalt in the sense used by biologists, but the analogy is rewarding, and there is achievement in having it worked out by using the concrete experiences and observations of a student group.

There is in this book much quotable wisdom, flashes of poetic interpretation, and, even in the struggles with pedagogical jargon, a sense of underlying sincerity and a stimulating idealism.

FRANCES DORWIN DUGAN
Headmistress, The Windsor School

Counseling and Psychology, by Milton L. Blum and Benjamin Balinsky. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951, 586 p.

Like so many texts in the as yet hazily-perceived field of applied psychology, this book is a mixture of impressive and disappointing features. It is clearly-written, forthright, and ambitious in scope. The authors are experienced counselors. Both are members of the Department of Psychology of the School of Business and Civic Administration of the City College of New York. Each has made valuable contributions to research in guidance.

The authors promise, in their introduction, a treatise on the contributions of clinical psychology to vocational guidance. What they deliver is a comprehensive text on vocational guidance, necessarily brief in treatment of many topics because of its ambitious attempt to cover the entire subject in one volume. The treatment of the contributions of clinical psychology is confined to a chapter which describes the Rorschach Ink-blot test and the Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale, and the reminder that the counselor must see his client as a whole person, not just as a vocational problem. The emphasis on the whole person is a contribution to counseling from many sources, not just from clinical psychology. It has been an axiom of philosophers, educational psychologists, Gestalt psychologists, social workers, and vocational counselors themselves.

Approximately 240 of the book's 586 pages are devoted to various aspects of the use of tests in guidance. Other topics include "pseudo-scientific" guidance, the counseling interview, occupational information, evaluation of guidance, and employee counseling, to name a few. Many of these chapters are well-organized and illuminating. The treatment of "pseudo-scientific" guidance is the best this reviewer has seen. References are in most cases up-to-date, and in only a few instances did this reviewer feel that a source was given inappropriate emphasis. One such instance was the neglect of the contributions of Super's "Appraising Vocational Fitness" (N.Y., Harper, 1949) to aptitude theory. (The authors cite this reference, but largely ignore it in their discussion of aptitude, preferring to build their exposition on Bingham's "Aptitudes and Aptitude-Testing," an admirable but out-dated text.)

The chapters on the counseling interview fail to fulfill the authors' promise to teach the reader the authors' own brand of counseling—"non-authoritarian," as distinguished from non-directive and authoritarian counseling. We are told that theirs avoids the errors of both of these methods. Their exposition does not reveal any new integration of counseling techniques. It is unfortunate that the authors did not include transcriptions of recorded interviews by way of illustration.

It is difficult to see for whom this book is intended. Its subject-matter is too specialized and its treatment too lengthy for the non-professional reader. It might be useful as a text in a graduate program which trains counselors for vocational guidance work in community agencies. It is less well-adapted to the training of high school counselors, since its frame of reference and applications are not those of the secondary school. The book further attempts to cover a larger area than is usually handled in a single graduate course in vocational guidance.

DAVID LANE
Clark University